

# The effect of site-specific recombinases XerCD on the removal of over-replicated chromosomal DNA through outer membrane vesicles in bacteria

Johannes Mansky,<sup>1</sup> Hui Wang,<sup>1</sup> Irene Wagner-Döbler,<sup>1</sup> Jürgen Tomasch<sup>2</sup>

**AUTHOR AFFILIATIONS** See affiliation list on p. 8.

**ABSTRACT** Outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) are universally produced by Gram-negative bacteria and play important roles in symbiotic and pathogenic interactions. The DNA from the lumen of OMVs from the Alphaproteobacterium *Dinoroseobacter shibae* was previously shown to be enriched for the region around the terminus of replication *ter* and specifically for the recognition sequence *dif* of the two site-specific recombinases XerCD. These enzymes are highly conserved in bacteria and play an important role in the last phase of cell division. Here, we show that a similar enrichment of *ter* and *dif* is found in the DNA inside OMVs from *Prochlorococcus marinus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Vibrio cholerae*, and *Escherichia coli*. The deletion of *xerC* or *xerD* in *E. coli* reduced the enrichment peak directly at the *dif* sequence, while the enriched DNA region around *ter* became broader, demonstrating that either enzyme influences the DNA content inside the lumen of OMVs. We propose that the intra-vesicle DNA originated from over-replication repair and the XerCD enzymes might play a role in this process, providing them with a new function in addition to resolving chromosome dimers.

**IMPORTANCE** Imprecise termination of replication can lead to over-replicated parts of bacterial chromosomes that have to be excised and removed from the dividing cell. The underlying mechanism is poorly understood. Our data show that outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) from diverse Gram-negative bacteria are enriched for DNA around the terminus of replication *ter* and the site-specific XerCD recombinases influence this enrichment. Clearing the divisome from over-replicated parts of the bacterial chromosome might be a so far unrecognized and conserved function of OMVs.

**KEYWORDS** DNA replication, DNA repair, outer membrane vesicles

Membrane vesicles are excreted by cells from all domains of life, and their cargo and the physiological roles discovered until now are as diverse as life itself (1, 2). Outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) of Gram-negative bacteria have often been found to contain DNA, for example, in *Acinetobacter baylyi* (3), *Ahrensia kielensis* (4), *Francisella novicida* (5), *Haemophilus influenza* (6), *Kingella kingae* (7), *Moraxella catarrhalis* (8), *Prochlorococcus* sp. (9), *Pseudoalteromonas marina* (4), *Porphyromonas gingivalis* (10), and *Shewanella vesiculosa* (11–13). *Prochlorococcus marinus*, one of the most abundant species in the ocean, continuously excreted two to five OMVs per cell per generation. Here, an enrichment of the region around the terminus of replication (*ter*) in vesicle DNA was noted for the first time, suggesting a link with the cell cycle (9). In *Vibrio cholerae*, both chromosomes were found in the DNA from the vesicle lumen (14). In *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, OMVs from planktonic cultures contained plasmids (15) and chromosomal DNA (16). Plasmids were also incorporated into OMVs by *Acinetobacter baylyi* and *Acinetobacter baumannii* and could be transferred into *Escherichia coli* (3, 17).

**Editor** Silvia T. Cardona, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada

Address correspondence to Jürgen Tomasch, tomasch@alga.cz.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

See the funding table on p. 8.

**Received** 5 June 2023

**Accepted** 22 January 2024

**Published** 13 February 2024

Copyright © 2024 Mansky et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/).

Gene transfer represents an important function of OMVs, e.g., by mediating the transfer of antibiotic resistance genes (18–20). In the cited studies, vesicles were always treated with DNase to remove extra-vesicle DNA. In *E. coli*, it was shown already in 1978 that vesicles are continuously produced during growth (21) and contain proteins from the outer membrane and the periplasmic space (22). While there are numerous studies on the protein content of *E. coli* OMVs, studies on the DNA cargo are rare and focused on the transfer of plasmids (23–25).

OMVs are generated by blebbing from the outer membrane and enclose molecules from the periplasmic space, which is free of DNA; it is, therefore, an unsolved question how the DNA inside the vesicle lumen was transferred from the cytosol to the periplasmic space or into the vesicle lumen, respectively (26–29). So-called outer-inner-membrane vesicles have been found in addition to “normal” OMVs in *Shewanella oneidensis* and were suggested as a possible solution (12). Another alternative is the so-called “explosive cell lysis” observed in biofilms of *P. aeruginosa* (30). In those biofilms, no blebbing of outer membranes was observed. By contrast, a subpopulation of cells in the biofilm lysed upon stress, and the shattered membrane fragments spontaneously formed small vesicles incorporating cytoplasmic DNA; this type of vesicle formation required the endolysin *lys* (30).

We had previously shown that the Alphaproteobacterium *Dinoroseobacter shibae* secretes DNA-containing OMVs constitutively during growth (31). Time-lapse microscopy captured instances of multiple OMV production at the septum of dividing cells (31). We compared the proteome of vesicles to that of cells (membrane and soluble fraction) and found that the vesicle proteome was clearly dominated by the outer membrane and periplasmic proteins. The most abundant vesicle membrane proteins were predicted to be required for direct interaction with peptidoglycan during cell division (LysM, Tol-Pal, Spol, and lytic murein transglycosylase) (31). A metabolome analysis of OMV membranes found that they were 15-fold enriched for the saturated fatty acid 16:00, making them more rigid compared to the cytoplasmic membrane (31). DNA from the vesicle lumen was up to 22-fold enriched for the region around the terminus of replication (*ter*). The peak of coverage was located at *dif*, a conserved 28-bp palindromic sequence required for binding of the site-specific tyrosine recombinases XerC/XerD. These recombinases are activated by FtsK in the divisome complex right before septum formation, and they are known to resolve chromosome dimers (32–37). We hypothesized that constitutive OMV secretion in *D. shibae* is coupled to cell division and that these vesicles remove over-replicated chromosomal DNA at the end of the cell cycle, which would otherwise halt cell division and thus be lethal to the cell. The enrichment of *dif* points toward a role of XerCD in this process.

To test our hypothesis further, we reanalyzed the DNA content of vesicles previously isolated from the model organisms *Prochlorococcus marinus* (9), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (30), and *Vibrio cholerae* (14). Furthermore, we chose *Escherichia coli* as an additional model for OMV production because it is the archetypical, best-understood organism regarding replication and cell division (38, 39) and a library of well-characterized gene knockouts is available, including *xerC* and *xerD* (40). We studied two questions: (i) Is the enrichment of the *dif* site specific for *D. shibae*, an Alphaproteobacterium from the Roseobacter group, or does it occur in other bacteria as well? (ii) Are the XerCD enzymes influencing the enrichment of *ter* and *dif* in the DNA inside OMVs? When these enzymes are resolving chromosome dimers, no fragments containing *dif* are produced. Therefore, we investigated the DNA composition in the lumen of OMVs produced by deletion mutants of *xerC* and *xerD* in *E. coli*.

## Bacterial strains analyzed

An overview of all analyzed strains can be found in Table 1. Data for the *P. marinus*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *V. cholerae* vesicle DNA were downloaded from the NCBI sequence read archive. The *dif* sites were obtained from the literature (9, 32, 33). *D. shibae* DSM16493 was obtained from the DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany. Strains *E. coli* K-12 BW251113

**TABLE 1** Strain information, mapped reads to the whole genome (total) and terminus (ter), summary statistics for mappings to 200 random locations, and enrichment of ter-located reads compared to the median along the chromosome<sup>a,b</sup>

Strain	Replicon	ter start	ter end	Total	ter	Mapped reads			Enrichment	Data accession	Reference
						Mean	Median	Std. dev.			
<i>Prochlorococcus</i> sp. Med4	NC_005072.1	826,000	832,000	1,368,548	92,377	3,050	0	13,221	92,377	SRR1013844	(9)
<i>Prochlorococcus</i> sp. Med4	NC_005072.1	826,000	832,000	2,729,515	186,179	16,381	0	60,827	186,179	SRR1013875	(30)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	NC_002516.2	2,440,067	2,446,067	55,750,742	54,594	35,740	49,237	26,894	1	SRR1654902	(14)
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i> Chr 1	NC_009457.1	1,126,240	1,132,240	792,045	11,395	1,170	1,234	1,133	9	SRR10387914	
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i> Chr2	NC_009456.1	564,632	570,632	4,869,589	5,046	8,735	540	34,823	9	SRR10387914	
<i>Dinoroseobacter shibae</i>	NC_009952.1	1,613,200	1,620,200	6,129,709	234,919	11,238	3,122	32,204	75	SAMEA114558114	This study
<i>Dinoroseobacter shibae</i>	NC_009952.1	1,613,200	1,620,200	5,333,124	191,321	7,894	3,640	18,346	53	SAMEA114558116	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	1,725,436	28,376	1,626	2,051	1,103	14	SAMEA113533507	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	1,237,778	100,698	1,015	1,258	813	80	SAMEA113533508	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	1,229,730	79,686	1,388	1,320	2,038	60	SAMEA113533509	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113 AxerC	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	2,589,912	94,403	4,828	2,644	12,692	36	SAMEA113533510	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113 AxerD	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	2,593,008	98,750	2,937	2,609	4,860	38	SAMEA113533511	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113 AxerD	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	2,191,086	69,473	2,202	2,057	3,079	34	SAMEA113533512	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113 AxerD	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	3,204,824	178,388	6,230	2,631	18,814	68	SAMEA113533513	
<i>Escherichia coli</i> BW25113 AxerD	NZ_CP009273.1	1,582,052	1,588,052	2,544,678	182,057	5,042	1,598	16,863	114	SAMEA113533514	

<sup>a</sup>Mean, median and standard deviation were calculated from counting the reads mapped to random 6 kb regions excluding ter on the respective chromosome.

<sup>b</sup>Accession numbers are for the NCBI sequence read archive (SRR) or the EMBL ENA archive (SAM).

(WT), *E. coli* JW3784 ( $\Delta xerC$ ), and *E. coli* JW2862 ( $\Delta xerD$ ) were obtained from the Keio Collection (40).

### Purification of vesicles and isolation of DNA

Purification of *D. shibae* vesicles and sequencing of their DNA content were reproduced in the current study according to the previously published protocol (31). *E. coli* strains were grown on Lysogeny broth (LB) plates or liquid LB medium at 37°C, with liquid cultures shaken at 180 rpm. Cell count was determined by flow cytometry using a MacsQuant Analyzer 10, and vesicle count was determined using the NanoSight NS300 (Malvern Panalytical). Vesicles were purified from 1 L of culture per replicate. Bacterial cells were separated by centrifugation at 10,900 *g* for 15 min; the supernatant was filtered using 0.45 and 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  bottle top filters (Millipore). The filtrate was concentrated using a tangential flow filtration system (Vivaflow 200, Sartorius). The concentrate was ultracentrifuged at 100,000 *g* for 2 h at 4°C; the resulting pellets were stored at –20°C until DNA isolation.

To isolate DNA, the vesicle pellet was suspended in 176  $\mu\text{L}$  sterile Phosphate-buffered saline (PH = 7.2). To remove extra-cellular DNA, 20  $\mu\text{L}$  10 $\times$  DNase buffer and 4  $\mu\text{L}$  DNase I (NEB Inc.) were added and incubated at 37°C for 30 min; then, the enzyme was inactivated by incubation at 75°C for 10 min. The mixture was cooled on ice for 5 min; the OMVs were lysed by the addition of 2  $\mu\text{L}$  100 $\times$  GES lysis buffer [5 M guanidinium thiocyanate, 100 mM EDTA, and 0.5% (wt/vol) sarcosyl] and incubation at 37°C for 30 min. To remove RNA, 2  $\mu\text{L}$  RNase (Thermo Scientific) was added, and the sample was again incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Two hundred-microliter phenol–chloroform–isoamyl alcohol was added, vortexed, and centrifuged at 12,000 *g* for 5 min at 4°C. The upper aqueous phase was withdrawn; 200  $\mu\text{L}$  TE buffer was added to the organic phase, thoroughly mixed, and centrifuged at 12,000 *g* for 5 min at 4°C. The resulting aqueous phase was removed and combined with the previously collected phase. DNA was precipitated by the addition of 40  $\mu\text{L}$  of 3 M sodium acetate, 1  $\mu\text{L}$  of glycogen, and 1.6 mL ice-cold ethanol. After the overnight incubation, the sample was centrifuged at 12,000 *g* for 5 min at 4°C. The supernatant was removed, and the pellet was washed three times with 70% ethanol. Afterward, the remaining ethanol was removed; the pellet was air-dried and dissolved in 20  $\mu\text{L}$  TE buffer. Isolated DNA was stored at –80°C until further analysis.

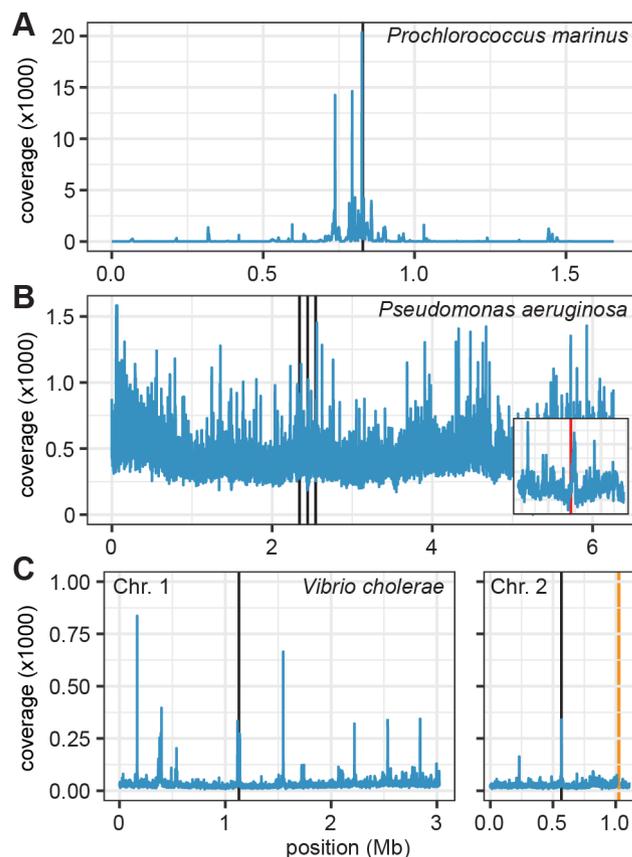
### DNA sequencing and analysis

Libraries for sequencing were prepared with the NEBNext Ultra II FS DNA kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. Fifty-base pair paired-end sequencing was performed on the NovaSeq 6000 to a depth of 2 million reads per sample. Quality trimming of raw reads was conducted with sickle v.1.33. Processing and analysis of sequencing data were performed as described (41). Trimmed reads were mapped to the genome using Bowtie2 (42). To test for an enrichment of the *ter* region in vesicle DNA, the counts of read mapping within and outside the *ter* region, defined as 8 kb surrounding the *dif* site, were calculated using samtools within a custom shell script. The chromosome outside the *ter* region was split into 10 equal parts, and 20 samples of 8 kb within each segment were counted. Mean, median, and standard deviation were calculated from these 200 samples. The coverage per nucleotide was calculated using BEDtools (43) and summarized for sliding windows of 8 kb along the chromosome using the zoo package in R (44). For the determination of significant differences in coverage between the *E. coli* wild-type and mutant strains, edgeR (45) was employed on trimmed mean of M-values (TMM)-normalized read coverage for a window from 1.3 to 1.9 Mb. For this range, the values are normally distributed; for the full range of the chromosome, they are not. Scripts can be found on github ([https://github.com/Juergent79/membrane\\_vesicles](https://github.com/Juergent79/membrane_vesicles)).

### DNA content of bacterial OMVs from published data sets

Bacterial vesicle DNA from the three published data sets showed an enrichment of the *ter* region although to a different extent (Table 1). The first sequencing of DNA from

membrane vesicles was reported for *P. marinus* (9) and reanalyzed here. The vesicles were produced constitutively during the exponential growth of the bacterium. In DNA from vesicles harvested from growing cells, a broader 100-kb region around *ter* was enriched with several distinct peaks, the highest located directly at the *dif* site (Fig. 1A). For *P. aeruginosa*, the sequenced DNA reportedly originated mainly from OMVs formed in biofilms during explosive cell lysis (30). In this process, the whole cellular DNA content is released and can be attached to the surface or included in the lumen of newly formed vesicles. It is, therefore, expected that over-replicated DNA from the last stage of cell division might not be particularly enriched. Indeed, the whole chromosome was represented with the highest coverage around *ori* indicating the release of DNA from replicating cells. However, a small peak could also be identified in direct proximity to the *dif* site (Fig. 1B). Vesicles of the third model *Vibrio cholerae* were isolated at the early exponential phase when cell lysis was reportedly minimal (14). The *V. cholerae* genome consists of two chromosomes. Both of them were completely covered by vesicle DNA, with their *dif* sites at *ter* ninefold enriched compared to the remainder of the chromosome and found among the highest of several distinct peaks (Fig. 1C). One phage region on chromosome 2 showed a coverage around 150,000-fold higher than the rest of the genome. This shows that part of the DNA originated from the active k139 phage encoded in this region. In summary, all three data sets indicate the enrichment of *dif* site DNA in OMVs of the respective bacteria.



**FIG 1** DNA content of OMVs from various bacteria. Coverage of mapped reads on the chromosomes averaged for sliding windows of 0.5 kb. The *dif* site is marked in black. (A) *Prochlorococcus marinus*. (B) *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* biofilms. The inset shows the region between the outer black lines in the main figure; the *dif* site is marked in red. (C) *Vibrio cholerae* chromosomes 1 and 2. The highly enriched phage region marked in yellow on chromosome 2 has been removed from the visualization.

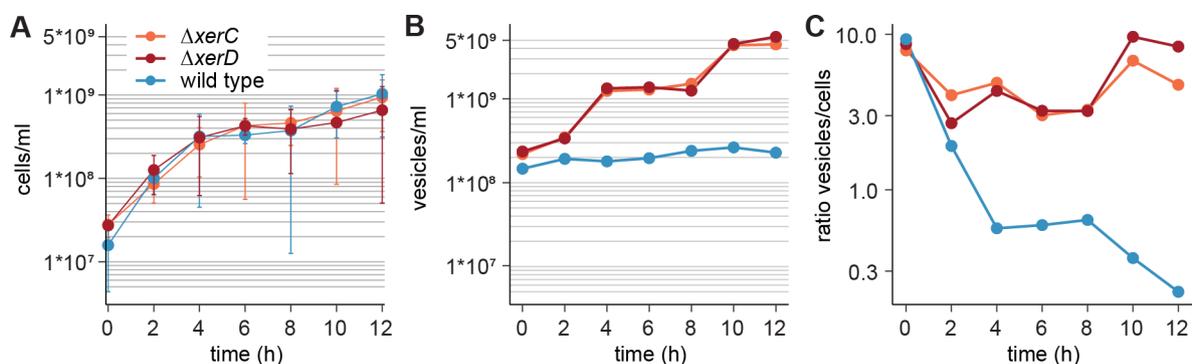
## Influence of *xerC* and *xerD* knockouts on the DNA content of *E. coli* OMVs

The *E. coli*  $\Delta xerC$  and  $\Delta xerD$  mutants grew at the same rate as the wild type (Fig. 2A); thus, they did not have an obvious fitness defect, in accordance with the published strain descriptions (40). However, the dynamics of OMV production was different in the mutants. While the OMV concentration in the supernatant remained stable around  $2 \times 10^8$  vesicles/mL for the wild type, it increased from a similar initial value to  $5 \times 10^9$  vesicles/mL for the mutants during the 12 h of cultivation (Fig. 2B). The ratio of vesicles per cell was similar for the wild type and mutants during the first 2 h of growth. Then, at 4 h, it dropped to 0.6–0.2 for the wild type while it remained between 3 and 10 for both mutants (Fig. 2C). If our hypothesis is true and the DNA in OMVs represents excised over-replicated fragments, then more such waste was produced in the mutants.

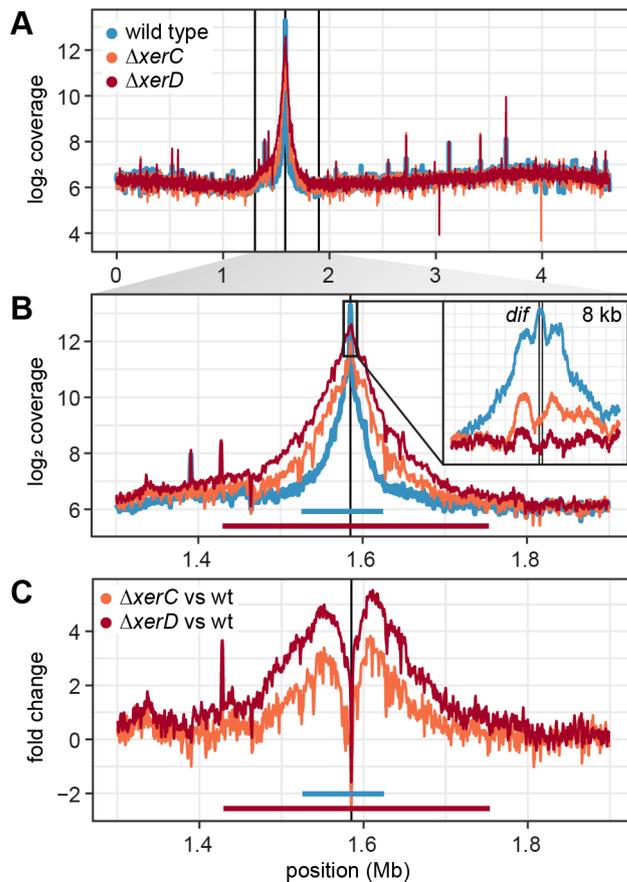
For all three strains, we found the *ter* region over-represented in the DNA isolated from the OMV's lumen (Table 1). In the wild type, a 100 kb region around *ter* and particularly the *dif* sequence almost in the center was enriched more than 120-fold compared to the rest of the chromosome (Fig. 3A and B). This is comparable to the 200-kb region surrounding the homolog site in OMVs of *D. shibae*, which was also found up to 120-fold enriched (31). The enrichment of the *ter* region in DNA of OMVs from either mutant clearly differed from that of the wild type (Fig. 3B). The peak range increased asymmetrically to approximately 350 kb around *dif* with this broader region being up to fourfold higher present in the mutant OMVs, suggesting increased and lengthened over-replication in these strains (Fig. 3B and C). A single-nucleotide-view on the most strongly enriched region revealed three peaks with the central maximum at the 28-bp *dif* site for the wild type (Fig. 3B). This maximum was 2.5-fold reduced in both mutants, while the surrounding two peaks were still visible, particularly in  $\Delta xerC$ . Since the XerCD–FtsK–complex cannot be formed when either *xerC* or *xerD* are knocked out, these data reflect the activity of the remaining recombinase homolog.

## DNA composition of OMVs

For *P. marinus*, *D. shibae*, *V. cholerae*, and the newly analyzed *E. coli* strains, the vesicles were treated with DNase prior to analyzing the DNA inside the vesicle lumen. However, the effectiveness of DNase treatment plays a large role in the enrichment of protected DNA, and a complete removal of extra-vesicular DNA cannot be guaranteed (46). For *D. shibae*, we previously sequenced DNA from both DNase-treated and -untreated vesicle enrichments and could show that the digestion of unprotected DNA results in a reduction of read mapping outside the *ter* region (31). In the case of *V. cholerae*, the sampling time point was chosen to minimize DNA originating from lysed cells, and two consecutive digestion steps were performed (14). In addition to the enrichment of the *ter* region, some other short specific regions and in particular phage DNA were found to be over-represented. DNA within a phage is shielded from DNase activity (41). The



**FIG 2** Growth and outer membrane vesicle production of *E. coli*. (A) Growth of *E. coli* wild-type and mutant strains. (B) Vesicles in the supernatant of *E. coli* strains during growth. (C) Ratio of vesicles per cell during growth.



**FIG 3** DNA content of *E. coli* outer membrane vesicles. (A) Coverage of mapped reads on the chromosome of *E. coli* averaged for sliding windows of 0.5 kb. (B) Zoom in to the *ter* region. The peak ranges for the wild type and mutants are marked. The inset shows the the *dif* site with a single-nucleotide resolution. (C) Fold change between the coverage of the *ter* region in the mutants compared to the wild type.

membrane vesicles from *P. aeruginosa* biofilms were not treated with DNase prior to isolating DNA (30). In those vesicles, also mRNA was found and sequenced. Transcripts of the SOS response were over-expressed relative to stationary culture cells, while in the DNA, we found a coverage gradient along the *ori-ter* axis, indicating that the DNA originated from cells lysed while actively replicating. In summary, while remnants of DNA originating from outside the vesicles cannot be completely excluded, there is a strong indication that it is really the DNA inside the vesicles that is enriched for the *dif* site.

### Roles of XerCD recombinases in over-replication repair

The site-specific recombinases XerC and XerD resolve chromosome dimers at the last step of cell division and are required by all bacteria with circular chromosomes. They were detected in 641 organisms from 16 phyla (33, 47, 48). When both replication forks of circular chromosomes meet at *ter*, they collide with the divisome complex. Chromosome dimers, resulting from illegitimate recombination between left and right replichores in a fraction of the population, are resolved by the FtsK-activated XerC/XerD enzymes (49). The two replication forks often do not collide exactly at *ter*, because the left and right replichores can progress with different speeds, resulting in over-replication of DNA—including *dif*—around *ter* (50–53). The DNA enriched in OMVs might, therefore, originate from over-replication repair. In our previous work, it had to remain open if the XerCD enzymes themselves influence the composition of OMV DNA, which would imply that

they have a second role beyond dimer resolution, or if other enzymes (51) are involved as well.

Our data show that the enrichment of the *ter* region in the DNA of *E. coli* OMVs peaks exactly at *dif*. This site, i.e., the recognition sequence for the XerCD recombinases, thus, may act as an anchoring point for over-replication repair. When either *xerC* or *xerD* is deleted, the enrichment of the *ter* region becomes broader, i.e., the length of excised DNA fragments around *ter* found inside the OMVs is increased. This could imply that over-replication repair still occurs, but with reduced efficiency. Moreover, the peak at *dif* itself is strongly reduced if either *xerC* or *xerD* is deleted. Thus, the activity of these enzymes influences the composition of the DNA in OMVs, although the Ftsk-XerCD complex for the chromosome dimer resolution cannot be formed. Both recombinases can also function independently, as long as their recognition sequence is provided. They were used for the construction of markerless gene deletions (54, 55) and are exploited by phages and plasmids for integration into the chromosome (47, 56), and in some bacteria, only one recombinase is required (57). Both XerC and XerD can efficiently mediate recombination independently as shown by reporter plasmids carrying tandem *dif* sites (58). We propose that in the functionally impaired  $\Delta xerC$  and  $\Delta xerD$  mutants, over-replication has become more likely and is to a lesser extent resolved directly at *dif*. Possible mechanisms might involve delayed recruitment of the chromosome segregation machinery to *dif* (59) or impaired interaction with either the RecBCD enzymes required for excision of over-replicated regions (51) or the Tus proteins acting as barriers against over-replication (60).

To conclude, we show that the enrichment of the *ter* region of the bacterial chromosome in OMVs is not restricted to *D. shibae* but also found in diverse genera represented by *P. marinus*, *V. cholerae*, *E. coli*, and even biofilms of *P. aeruginosa*. The site-specific recombinases XerC and XerD are essential for the enrichment of their recognition sequence *dif* in the lumen of OMVs of *E. coli*. Given their almost universal presence in Gram-negative bacteria (33) and the strong conservation of the cell division molecular machinery, it would be interesting to unravel the underlying mechanisms in more detail.

## AUTHOR AFFILIATIONS

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Microbiology, Technical University of Braunschweig, Braunschweig, Germany

<sup>2</sup>Laboratory of Anoxygenic Phototrophs, Institute of Microbiology of the Czech Academy of Science–Centre Algatech, Třeboň, Czech Republic

## AUTHOR ORCIDs

Jürgen Tomasch  <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-3914-2781>

## FUNDING

Funder	Grant(s)	Author(s)
<a href="#">Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft</a>	TRR51	Irene Wagner-Döbler
<a href="#">Czech Science Foundation</a>	GX19-28778X	Jürgen Tomasch

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Johannes Mansky, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing – review and editing | Hui Wang, Investigation | Irene Wagner-Döbler, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – original draft | Jürgen Tomasch, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Supervision, Visualization, Writing – original draft

## DATA AVAILABILITY

The newly generated sequencing data for two to three replicate samples per *E. coli* strain were deposited at the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA; <https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>)

under accession number [PRJEB62439](#). Accession numbers for the publically available data sets are provided in Table 1.

## ADDITIONAL FILES

The following material is available [online](#).

## Open Peer Review

**PEER REVIEW HISTORY (review-history.pdf)**. An accounting of the reviewer comments and feedback.

## REFERENCES

- Gill S, Catchpole R, Forterre P. 2019. Extracellular membrane vesicles in the three domains of life and beyond. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* 43:273–303. <https://doi.org/10.1093/femsre/fuy042>
- Toyofuku M, Schild S, Kaparakis-Liaskos M, Eberl L. 2023. Composition and functions of bacterial membrane vesicles. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 21:415–430. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-023-00875-5>
- Fulsundar S, Harms K, Flaten GE, Johnsen PJ, Chopade BA, Nielsen KM. 2014. Gene transfer potential of outer membrane vesicles of *Acinetobacter baylyi* and effects of stress on vesiculation. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 80:3469–3483. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.04248-13>
- Hagemann S, Stöger L, Kappelmann M, Hassl I, Ellinger A, Velimirov B. 2014. DNA-bearing membrane vesicles produced by *Ahrensia kielensis* and *Pseudoalteromonas marina*. *J Basic Microbiol* 54:1062–1072. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jobm.201300376>
- Pierson T, Matrakas D, Taylor YU, Manyam G, Morozov VN, Zhou W, van Hoek ML. 2011. Proteomic characterization and functional analysis of outer membrane vesicles of *Francisella novicida* suggests possible role in virulence and use as a vaccine. *J Proteome Res* 10:954–967. <https://doi.org/10.1021/pr1009756>
- Sharpe SW, Kuehn MJ, Mason KM. 2011. Elicitation of epithelial cell-derived immune effectors by outer membrane vesicles of nontypeable *Haemophilus influenzae*. *Infect Immun* 79:4361–4369. <https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.05332-11>
- Maldonado R, Wei R, Kachlany SC, Kazi M, Balashova NV. 2011. Cytotoxic effects of *Kingella kingae* outer membrane vesicles on human cells. *Microb Pathog* 51:22–30. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micpath.2011.03.005>
- Schaar V, Nordström T, Mörgelin M, Riesbeck K. 2011. *Moraxella catarrhalis* outer membrane vesicles carry  $\beta$ -lactamase and promote survival of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* and *Haemophilus influenzae* by inactivating amoxicillin. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 55:3845–3853. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01772-10>
- Biller SJ, Schubotz F, Roggensack SE, Thompson AW, Summons RE, Chisholm SW. 2014. Bacterial vesicles in marine ecosystems. *Science* 343:183–186. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1243457>
- Ho MH, Chen CH, Goodwin JS, Wang BY, Xie H. 2015. Functional advantages of *Porphyromonas gingivalis* vesicles. *PLoS One* 10:e0123448. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0123448>
- Frias A, Manresa A, de Oliveira E, López-Iglesias C, Mercade E. 2010. Membrane vesicles: a common feature in the extracellular matter of cold-adapted antarctic bacteria. *Microb Ecol* 59:476–486. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00248-009-9622-9>
- Pérez-Cruz C, Carrión O, Delgado L, Martínez G, López-Iglesias C, Mercade E. 2013. New type of outer membrane vesicle produced by the gram-negative bacterium *Shewanella vesiculosa* M7<sup>T</sup>: implications for DNA content. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 79:1874–1881. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.03657-12>
- Orench-Rivera N, Kuehn MJ. 2016. Environmentally controlled bacterial vesicle-mediated export. *Cell Microbiol* 18:1525–1536. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cmi.12676>
- Langlete P, Krabberød AK, Winther-Larsen HC. 2019. Vesicles from *Vibrio cholerae* contain AT-rich DNA and shorter mRNAs that do not correlate with their protein products. *Front Microbiol* 10:2708. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.02708>
- Renelli M, Matias V, Lo RY, Beveridge TJ. 2004. DNA-containing membrane vesicles of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 and their genetic transformation potential. *Microbiology (Reading)* 150:2161–2169. <https://doi.org/10.1099/mic.0.26841-0>
- Bitto NJ, Chapman R, Pidot S, Costin A, Lo C, Choi J, D'Cruze T, Reynolds EC, Dashper SG, Turnbull L, Whitchurch CB, Stinear TP, Stacey KJ, Ferrero RL. 2017. Bacterial membrane vesicles transport their DNA cargo into host cells. *Sci Rep* 7:7072. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-07288-4>
- Chatterjee S, Mondal A, Mitra S, Basu S. 2017. *Acinetobacter baumannii* transfers the bla<sub>NDM-1</sub> gene via outer membrane vesicles. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 72:2201–2207. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkx131>
- Xu J, Mei C, Zhi Y, Liang Z-X, Zhang X, Wang H-J. 2022. Comparative genomics analysis and outer membrane vesicle-mediated horizontal antibiotic-resistance gene transfer in *Avibacterium paragallinarum*. *Microbiol Spectr* 10:e0137922. <https://doi.org/10.1128/spectrum.01379-22>
- Li P, Luo W, Xiang TX, Jiang Y, Liu P, Wei DD, Fan L, Huang S, Liao W, Liu Y, Zhang W. 2022. Horizontal gene transfer via OMVs co-carrying virulence and antimicrobial-resistant genes is a novel way for the dissemination of carbapenem-resistant hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Front Microbiol* 13:945972. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.945972>
- Tang B, Yang A, Liu P, Wang Z, Jian Z, Chen X, Yan Q, Liang X, Liu W. 2023. Outer membrane vesicles transmitting BLA NDM-1 mediate the emergence of carbapenem-resistant hypervirulent *Klebsiella pneumoniae*. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 67:e0144422. <https://doi.org/10.1128/aac.01444-22>
- Mug-Opstelten D, Witholt B. 1978. Preferential release of new outer membrane fragments by exponentially growing *Escherichia coli*. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 508:287–295. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0005-2736\(78\)90331-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0005-2736(78)90331-0)
- Lee E-Y, Bang JY, Park GW, Choi D-S, Kang JS, Kim H-J, Park K-S, Lee J-O, Kim Y-K, Kwon K-H, Kim K-P, Gho YS. 2007. Global proteomic profiling of native outer membrane vesicles derived from *Escherichia coli*. *Proteomics* 7:3143–3153. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pmic.200700196>
- Yaron S, Kolling GL, Simon L, Matthews KR. 2000. Vesicle-mediated transfer of virulence genes from *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 to other enteric bacteria. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 66:4414–4420. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.66.10.4414-4420.2000>
- Bielaszewska M, Daniel O, Karch H, Mellmann A. 2020. Dissemination of the bla<sub>CTX-M-15</sub> gene among Enterobacteriaceae via outer membrane vesicles. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 75:2442–2451. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkaa214>
- Bielaszewska M, Rüter C, Bauwens A, Greune L, Jarosch K-A, Steil D, Zhang W, He X, Lloubes R, Fruth A, Kim KS, Schmidt MA, Dobrindt U, Mellmann A, Karch H. 2017. Host cell interactions of outer membrane vesicle-associated virulence factors of enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* O157: Intracellular delivery, trafficking and mechanisms of cell injury. *PLOS Pathog* 13:e1006159. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1006159>
- Yañez A, Garduño RA, Contreras-Rodríguez A. 2022. Editorial: what is known and what remains to be discovered about bacterial outer membrane vesicles. *Front Microbiol* 13:929696. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.929696>
- Avila-Calderón ED, Ruiz-Palma MDS, Aguilera-Arreola MG, Velázquez-Guadarrama N, Ruiz EA, Gomez-Lunar Z, Witonsky S, Contreras-Rodríguez A. 2021. Outer membrane vesicles of gram-negative bacteria:

- an outlook on biogenesis. *Front Microbiol* 12:557902. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2021.557902>
28. Kulp A, Kuehn MJ. 2010. Biological functions and biogenesis of secreted bacterial outer membrane vesicles. *Annu Rev Microbiol* 64:163–184. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.micro.091208.073413>
  29. Toyofuku M, Schild S, Kaparakis-Liaskos M, Eberl L. 2023. Composition and functions of bacterial membrane vesicles. *Nat Rev Microbiol* 21:415–430. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-023-00875-5>
  30. Turnbull L, Toyofuku M, Hynen AL, Kurosawa M, Pessi G, Petty NK, Osvath SR, Cárcamo-Oyarce G, Gloag ES, Shimoni R, Omasits U, Ito S, Yap X, Monahan LG, Cavaliere R, Ahrens CH, Charles IG, Nomura N, Eberl L, Whitchurch CB. 2016. Explosive cell lysis as a mechanism for the biogenesis of bacterial membrane vesicles and biofilms. *Nat Commun* 7:11220. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms11220>
  31. Wang H, Beier N, Boedeker C, Sztajer H, Henke P, Neumann-Schaal M, Mansky J, Rohde M, Overmann J, Petersen J, Klawonn F, Kucklick M, Engemann S, Tomasch J, Wagner-Döbler I, Jansson JK, Gruber-Vodicka HR. 2021. *Dinoroseobacter shibae* outer membrane vesicles are enriched for the chromosome dimer resolution site *dif*. *mSystems* 6:e00693-20. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mSystems.00693-20>
  32. Val M-E, Kennedy SP, El Karoui M, Bonné L, Chevalier F, Barre F-X. 2008. FtsK-dependent dimer resolution on multiple chromosomes in the pathogen *Vibrio cholerae*. *PLoS Genet* 4:e1000201. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1000201>
  33. Kono N, Arakawa K, Tomita M. 2011. Comprehensive prediction of chromosome dimer resolution sites in bacterial genomes. *BMC Genomics* 12:19. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-12-19>
  34. Sherratt DJ, Søballe B, Barre F-X, Filipe S, Lau I, Massey T, Yates J. 2004. Recombination and chromosome segregation. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* 359:61–69. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2003.1365>
  35. Bebel A, Karaca E, Kumar B, Stark WM, Barabas O. 2016. Structural snapshots of Xer recombination reveal activation by synaptic complex remodeling and DNA bending. *Elife* 5:1–23. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.19706>
  36. Aussel L, Barre FX, Aroyo M, Stasiak A, Stasiak AZ, Sherratt D. 2002. FtsK is a DNA motor protein that activates chromosome dimer resolution by switching the catalytic state of the XerC and XerD recombinases. *Cell* 108:195–205. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0092-8674\(02\)00624-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0092-8674(02)00624-4)
  37. Liao Q, Ren Z, Wiesler EE, Fuqua C, Wang X. 2022. A dicentric bacterial chromosome requires XerC/D site-specific recombinases for resolution. *Curr Biol* 32:3609–3618. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2022.06.050>
  38. Du S, Lutkenhaus J. 2017. Assembly and activation of the *Escherichia coli* divisome. *Mol Microbiol* 105:177–187. <https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.13696>
  39. Graumann PL. 2014. Chromosome architecture and segregation in prokaryotic cells. *J Mol Microbiol Biotechnol* 24:291–300. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000369100>
  40. Baba T, Ara T, Hasegawa M, Takai Y, Okumura Y, Baba M, Datsenko KA, Tomita M, Wanner BL, Mori H. 2006. Construction of *Escherichia coli* K-12 in-frame, single-gene knockout mutants: the Keio collection. *Mol Syst Biol* 2:2. <https://doi.org/10.1038/msb4100050>
  41. Tomasch J, Wang H, Hall ATK, Patzelt D, Preusse M, Petersen J, Brinkmann H, Bunk B, Bhujju S, Jarek M, Geffers R, Lang AS, Wagner-Döbler I. 2018. Packaging of *Dinoroseobacter shibae* DNA into gene transfer agent particles is not random. *Genome Biol Evol* 10:359–369. <https://doi.org/10.1093/gbe/evy005>
  42. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. 2012. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat Methods* 9:357–359. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.1923>
  43. Quinlan AR, Hall IM. 2010. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features. *Bioinformatics* 26:841–842. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btq033>
  44. Zeileis A, Grothendieck G. 2005. Zoo: S3 infrastructure for regular and irregular time series. *J Stat Softw* 14. <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v014.i06>
  45. Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. 2010. edgeR: a bioconductor package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics* 26:139–140. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp616>
  46. Johnston EL, Zavan L, Bitto NJ, Petrovski S, Hill AF, Kaparakis-Liaskos M. 2023. Planktonic and biofilm-derived *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* outer membrane vesicles facilitate horizontal gene transfer of plasmid DNA. *Microbiol Spectr* 11:e0517922. <https://doi.org/10.1128/spectrum.05179-22>
  47. Castillo F, Benmohamed A, Szatmari G. 2017. Xer site specific recombination: double and single recombinase systems. *Front Microbiol* 8:453. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2017.00453>
  48. Midonet C, Barre F-X. 2014. Xer site-specific recombination: promoting vertical and horizontal transmission of genetic information. *Microbiol Spectr* 2:1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.MDNA3-0056-2014>
  49. Keller AN, Xin Y, Boer S, Reinhardt J, Baker R, Arciszewska LK, Lewis PJ, Sherratt DJ, Löwe J, Grainge I. 2016. Activation of Xer-recombination at *dif*: structural basis of the FtsK-XerD interaction. *Sci Rep* 6:33357. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep33357>
  50. De Septenville AL, Duigou S, Boubakri H, Michel B. 2012. Replication fork reversal after replication-transcription collision. *PLoS Genet* 8:e1002622. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1002622>
  51. Wendel BM, Courcelle CT, Courcelle J. 2014. Completion of DNA replication in *Escherichia coli*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 111:16454–16459. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1415025111>
  52. Hiasa H, Marians KJ. 1994. Tus prevents overreplication of *oriC* plasmid DNA. *J Biol Chem* 269:26959–26968.
  53. Lloyd RG, Rudolph CJ. 2016. 25 years on and no end in sight: a perspective on the role of RecG protein. *Curr Genet* 62:827–840. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00294-016-0589-z>
  54. Bloor AE, Cranenburgh RM. 2006. An efficient method of selectable marker gene excision by Xer recombination for gene replacement in bacterial chromosomes. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 72:2520–2525. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.72.4.2520-2525.2006>
  55. Debowski AW, Gauntlett JC, Li H, Liao T, Sehna M, Nilsson HO, Marshall BJ, Benghezal M. 2012. Xer-cise in *Helicobacter pylori*: one-step transformation for the construction of markerless gene deletions. *Helicobacter* 17:435–443. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1523-5378.2012.00969.x>
  56. Fournes F, Crozat E, Pages C, Tardin C, Salomé L, Cornet F, Rousseau P. 2016. FtsK translocation permits discrimination between an endogenous and an imported Xer/*dif* recombination complex. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 113:7882–7887. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1523178113>
  57. Nolivos S, Pages C, Rousseau P, Le Bourgeois P, Cornet F. 2010. Are two better than one? analysis of an FtsK/Xer recombination system that uses a single recombinase. *Nucleic Acids Res* 38:6477–6489. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkq507>
  58. Grainge I, Lesterlin C, Sherratt DJ. 2011. Activation of XerCD-*dif* recombination by the FtsK DNA translocase. *Nucleic Acids Res* 39:5140–5148. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkr078>
  59. Bhowmik BK, Clevenger AL, Zhao H, Rybenkov VV. 2018. Segregation but not replication of the *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* chromosome terminates at *Dif*. *mBio* 9:1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1128/mBio.01088-18>
  60. Mulcair MD, Schaeffer PM, Oakley AJ, Cross HF, Neylon C, Hill TM, Dixon NE. 2006. A molecular mousetrap determines polarity of termination of DNA replication in *E. coli*. *Cell* 125:1309–1319. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2006.04.040>